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NOTE

The term 'Britain' is used informally in the *Survey of Current Affairs* to mean the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. 'Great Britain' comprises England, Wales and Scotland.

GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Ministerial Changes

Lord Sanderson of Bowden, Minister of State at the Scottish Office, has tendered his resignation. As a result, a number of new ministerial appointments have been announced.

The appointments are:

Scottish Office

Minister of State

Mr Michael Forsyth, MP (former Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Scottish Office)

Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State

The Lord Strathclyde (former Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Department of the Environment)

Department of the Environment

Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State

The Baroness Blatch, CBE, FRSA (former Baroness in Waiting – a Government Whip in the House of Lords)

Her Majesty's Household (Whip's Office)

Lord in Waiting (a Government Whip in the House of Lords)

The Lord Cavendish of Furness

A further appointment of a Lord in Waiting will be announced later.

Serious Fraud Office

The second annual report of the Serious Fraud Office points to the importance of new measures designed to improve international co-operation in the investigation of fraud. The continuing development of a team approach to investigations is also noted.

The Serious Fraud Office (SFO), set up under the Criminal Justice Act 1987 (see p 190, 1987) to investigate and prosecute cases of serious or complex fraud in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, started operations in 1988. It is accountable through its Director to the Attorney-General and to Parliament. The report[1] deals with the period from April 1989 to April 1990.

The SFO conducts investigations jointly with the police, and case teams include at least one police officer. The use of case teams for particular investigations is an important part of the SFO's approach. They enjoy considerable delegated authority to conduct investigations and are made up of lawyers and accountants as well as police officers. The police officers with whom the SFO works are predominantly from the Metropolitan Police and the City of London Police, but during the period covered by the report, officers from a total of 17 forces were involved.

International Co-operation

The report lays importance on measures to improve international co-operation in the investigation of fraud. Most serious frauds have an overseas element, but lack of international reciprocity can make it hard to obtain evidence from abroad. Some countries also require that requests for assistance be channelled through a court, which is not possible until formal proceedings have started. However, the Director of the SFO says in the report that the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990 (see p 112) would be of immense value in tackling such problems, which were major hurdles for investigators. The Act would allow the SFO to assist overseas investigators even before proceedings had commenced. It would thus enable Britain to offer reciprocity in the supply of evidence, without which many countries are not prepared to arrange for evidence to be furnished to British investigators. It would also allow Britain to enter into mutual assistance treaties.

New Transfer and Trial Procedures

The report says that transfer procedures introduced under the Criminal Justice Act 1987 are working well and have led to an appreciable number of cases reaching trial substantially earlier than if they had gone through traditional committal procedures in magistrates' courts. The judicial process was also being speeded up by preparatory hearings, at which issues can be resolved which would otherwise have had to be considered in the absence of the jury at the trial.

Continued efforts are being made to ease the presentation of complex evidence to juries. These

[1] *Serious Fraud Office Annual Report from 5 April 1989 to 4 April 1990.* HMSO, £13·50. ISBN 0 10 252390 8.

include the use of computer technology. The report points to one trial where the case team produced over 50 graphics to explain aspects of the evidence; these were displayed on a large screen in the courtroom. In another case, the team prepared moving graphics to display the working of the futures market, which were shown on small screens placed around the room. Discussions are continuing with other departments about the adaptation of courtrooms and the provision of equipment.

Caseload

In the year covered by the report, the SFO completed 17 trials. These involved 32 defendants, of whom 24 were found guilty. This compares with nine trials the previous year, with 14 defendants, of whom ten were convicted. At the end of April 1990 the SFO had 61 active cases on its books. Of these, 32 were under investigation, 18 were awaiting trial in the Crown court, eight were awaiting transfer or committal and three were partly heard.

During the year, the SFO served 574 notices requiring people to give information or produce relevant documents, a power given it by the 1987 Act. The first prosecution for failure to comply was also undertaken. This resulted in an accountant who refused to answer questions being sentenced to five months' imprisonment.

Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference

Concerns about nuclear proliferation could only be allayed by the adherence of all states to the Non-Proliferation Treaty, said Mr William Waldegrave, Minister of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, in a speech at a review conference in Geneva on 22 August.

Background

The Non-Proliferation Treaty was the subject of a fourth review conference in Geneva in August and September. Signed in1968, the treaty has 140 countries party to it, including Britain, the Soviet Union and the United States. It bans the transfer of nuclear weapons or other nuclear explosive devices to non-nuclear weapon states by nuclear weapon states and their acquisition or manufacture by non-nuclear weapon states. Non-nuclear weapon states who are party to the treaty have to conclude safeguards agreements with the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in order to prevent diversion of nuclear energy from peaceful uses to nuclear weapons or other nuclear explosive devices. Under the treaty, the parties have agreed to assist the exchange of equipment, material and information for the peaceful uses of nuclear energy and to ensure that potential benefits from the peaceful application of nuclear explosions are available to non-nuclear weapon states who are party. In addition, the signatories have undertaken to negotiate effective nuclear and conventional disarmament. In 1977 Britain and 14 other countries with nuclear manufacturing industries agreed on a set of guidelines for nuclear transfers. The last review conference took place in 1985 (see pp 228-9, 1985).

Mr Waldegrave's Speech

The Non-Proliferation Treaty was the most widely supported arms control agreement in history, Mr Waldegrave noted. Although the treaty's assurances had enhanced the world's security – there were still only five declared nuclear weapon states, the same number as when the treaty was opened for signature – 'the threat of proliferation remains very real, and the task of combating it as urgent as ever', he said. He repeated a call for all states to join in efforts to eliminate the risk of nuclear proliferation.

Mr Waldegrave said that the treaty's system of safeguards, operated by the IAEA, provided the framework for peaceful international nuclear trade and the development of the peaceful use of atomic energy between countries party to the treaty, without suspicions being aroused as to the possible diversion of fissile material for explosive purposes.

Regarding the treaty's commitment to the exchange of equipment and information on the peaceful uses of nuclear energy, Britain had a good record, Mr Waldegrave said. Britain's contribution to the IAEA's technical assistance and co-operation fund had steadily increased.[1] In addition, Britain was giving £4·5 million between 1986 and 1996 to projects specifically aimed at helping developing countries who were party to the treaty.

Compliance

Mr Waldegrave said that a review conference had to ask whether all the states party to the treaty had in fact met all their obligations. Britain continued to work with other nuclear supplier states to define exactly what was entailed by their obligations not to provide fissionable material, or equipment or material especially designed or prepared for the processing, use or production of such material to any non-nuclear weapon state for peaceful purposes except under safeguards. Britain was participating with other nuclear suppliers in elaborating their guidelines. Through vigilant implementation of appropriate export controls, Britain was also scrupulous in ensuring that it did not co-operate with non-nuclear weapon states not party to the treaty in ways which could conceivably assist the development of nuclear weapons.

Britain and other nuclear suppliers made no apology for the claim that their practice was discriminatory, he continued. 'We discriminate against non-parties to the treaty and in favour of parties. We discriminate in favour of the peaceful use of nuclear energy and against attempts, by fair means or foul, to obtain technology for the manufacture of nuclear weapons.' Where significant nuclear exports to non-nuclear weapon states were concerned, Britain had always made it clear that it would be ready to join a consensus of other major suppliers in moving to insistence on a full safeguards agreement as a condition of supply.

Disarmament Provisions

On the commitment to pursue disarmament negotiations, Mr Waldegrave said that 'breath-taking progress' in arms control negotiations had been made since 1985 (see pp 158-61). East-West tensions had

[1] The IAEA's budget for this fund was $42 million in 1989.

been reduced and the threat of global nuclear war had receded. In the United States-Soviet agreements on verification protocols for the Threshold Test Ban Treaty and the Peaceful Nuclear Explosions Treaty, a new regime had been established for nuclear testing which Britain would respect. Although a comprehensive test ban treaty remained a long-term goal, Britain had a continuing requirement to conduct underground tests to ensure that its nuclear weapons remained effective and safe.

Safeguards Agreements

It was right, Mr Waldegrave said, that Britain could raise questions about compliance with the Non-Proliferation Treaty by other parties. A considerable number of these states had not fulfilled their obligations under the treaty to negotiate safeguards agreements with the IAEA, including North Korea, which acceded to the treaty in 1985. The behaviour of other parties, which had signed safeguards agreements, also gave cause for concern. Further, there was the question of clandestine procurement, which inevitably aroused suspicions about the intentions of the states which engaged in it.

Further Policing of the Treaty

Mr Waldegrave said that there were provisions in the treaty which could be used to stop commitments being flouted. Under Article 73, for instance, the IAEA could propose more inspections, while under Article 77 it could obtain access to information or locations in addition to the access specified in the safeguards agreements. If the matter was urgent, the IAEA could call upon the state to take action without delay. Finally, under Article 19, if the IAEA found that it was unable to verify that there had been no diversion of nuclear material, it could still take a number of steps as laid down in the IAEA's statute. All these provisions, the minister pointed out, could be used if there were grounds for suspicion that any state party to the treaty was accumulating unsafeguarded nuclear material at a particular location.

Conclusion

If all signatories pledged strictly to comply with their obligations under the treaty and if they all guarded against any actions which might call their compliance into question, Mr Waldegrave said, they would be contributing to the maintenance and strengthening of the treaty as a bulwark against proliferation. There were, however, legitimate concerns about the position of states not party to the treaty. These would be fully allayed only when there was universal adherence and all the necessary safeguards agreements were in place. This had always been Britain's goal, and Mr Waldegrave asked those countries which had not acceded to the treaty to do so – in particular India, Pakistan, Israel, South Africa, Argentina, and Brazil, which had significant unsafeguarded nuclear facilities. He emphasised that 'every accession to the treaty strengthens the international consensus which it represents'.

Iraq's Invasion of Kuwait

The British Government's objectives in the Gulf crisis remain the withdrawal of Iraq from Kuwait, the restoration of Kuwaiti independence and of its legitimate Government and the defence of the territorial integrity and independence of threatened countries in the region. These objectives were reaffirmed in a special House of Commons debate on 6 and 7 September.

The main international developments over the Gulf crisis during the period from mid-August to early September included further resolutions by the United Nations Security Council, meetings of the European Community foreign ministers, of the Western European Union and of the Arab League, and a joint United States-Soviet statement issued at the summit meeting in Helsinki.

PARLIAMENTARY DEBATE

The Government agreed to a request from the Leader of the official Opposition for the recall of Parliament to discuss the Gulf crisis. At the end of the debate on 7 September a vote took place, the Government being supported by the official Opposition and the Liberal Democrats. A few Members of Parliament expressed reservations and stressed the need to solve the problem by negotiation. In the division 437 members supported the Government and 35 voted against.

Prime Minister's Statement

Opening the debate on 6 September (*Hansard*, Vol 177, No 152, cols 734-43), the Prime Minister, Mrs Margaret Thatcher, said that Parliament had been recalled to discuss the grave developments in the Gulf arising from the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait on 2 August. She recalled that the UN Security Council had promptly demanded Iraq's withdrawal, had imposed comprehensive mandatory sanctions when Iraq failed to respond and had authorised the use of force to implement them. In response to requests from King Fahd of Saudi Arabia and other Gulf rulers, the United States and Britain had deployed forces in the region to deter further Iraqi aggression and in support of the Security Council decisions. More than 20 countries, including several Arab nations, had now sent or were committed to sending forces.

The Prime Minister stated that Iraq was using British and other foreign citizens in Kuwait and Iraq as hostages and that embassies in Kuwait had been forcibly prevented from carrying out their duty towards those citizens. She said: 'The Government have responded to this extremely serious situation vigorously and in close co-operation with our allies and friends. Our resolute response has received wide support in this country and elsewhere and the gratitude and appreciation of many Arab governments.'

Iraqi Claims

Mrs Thatcher reviewed the origins of the crisis (see pp 277-8), emphasising that the Iraqi Government had given categorical assurances to the Governments of Saudi Arabia and Egypt that it had no

intention of invading Kuwait. She refuted Iraq's territorial claims, stating that the Al-Sabah family had ruled Kuwait long before Iraq had been created in the break-up of the Ottoman empire after the first world war (1914-18).

Iraq had invaded Kuwait 'under the pretext of responding to a request for assistance from a non-existent revolutionary government, which they alleged had overthrown the Government of Kuwait'. The subsequent establishment of a 'puppet' regime consisting of Iraqi officers had since been followed by the annexation of Kuwait as a province of Iraq. This move had been declared null and void by the UN Security Council (see p 279).

The Prime Minister considered that Iraq had no conceivable justification for its actions and that if its aggression were allowed to succeed then no small state could ever feel safe again. 'At the very time when at last we can see the prospect of a world governed by the rule of law, a world in which the United Nations and the Security Council can play the role envisaged for them when they were founded, Iraq's actions go back to the law of the jungle. The issue is one of importance to the whole world. It affects world security, world oil supplies and world economic stability. It affects the confidence of all small states, not only those in the Middle East.'

International Response

The 'swift and resolute' international response to Iraqi aggression, said Mrs Thatcher, owed much to the United States and to the co-operation of the Soviet Union. Britain's objectives, reflected in the UN Security Council resolutions, were the unconditional Iraqi withdrawal from Kuwait and the restoration of the legitimate Kuwaiti Government. 'The preferred method is comprehensive economic sanctions, collectively and effectively implemented.'

The Prime Minister identified Iraq's vulnerability to sanctions in view of its dependence on oil exports and food imports. Turkey and Saudi Arabia were preventing the export of Iraqi oil through the pipelines across their territory and an embargo on the sale of oil from Iraq and Kuwait was in force. The freezing of Kuwaiti assets had prevented Iraq from exploiting them. 'Rigorous implementation of sanctions by the whole world is vital to make the policy work.'

Enforcement of Sanctions

Turning to the question of enforcing sanctions, the Prime Minister said that Britain had acted throughout in accordance with international law. UN Security Council resolution 661, calling for comprehensive economic sanctions, expressly affirmed the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence in accordance with Article 51 of the UN Charter (see p 313). To undertake to use no military force without the further authority of the Security Council would deprive Britain of a right in international law. Britain would not be precluded, by reason of any of the Security Council resolutions, from exercising the inherent right of collective self-defence.

Britain's armed forces, Mrs Thatcher continued, had been deployed in the area at the request of Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and other Gulf states and under Britain's treaty of friendship with Bahrain. They were also part of a much wider international effort, 'including not only United States forces but those of our European allies, of many Arab countries and others, including members of the Commonwealth. It is a truly multinational force.'

Hostages

On the plight of British and other foreign nationals in Iraq and Kuwait, the Prime Minister said that every norm of law, diplomatic convention and civilised behaviour had been offended by the use of these citizens as hostages. Although the release of some women and children was very welcome, the detention of their husbands, fathers and sons was evil and reprehensible. Britain would not give in to blackmail and would hold the Iraqi President, Mr Saddam Hussein, and Iraqi officials individually responsible for any harm befalling them. Moreover, 'by taking hostages, and by his treatment of them, Saddam Hussein only increases the world's abhorrence and stiffens its determination not to let aggression succeed. Our resolve, and that of our partners and allies, to bring about Iraq's withdrawal from Kuwait and the restoration of the legitimate government is absolute.'

Embassies in Kuwait

Commenting on Iraq's illegal attempt to close the British and other embassies in Kuwait, Mrs Thatcher said that Britain and nearly 30 other countries had refused to comply with Iraq's demands. Although the British embassy was surrounded by armed soldiers and its water and electricity supplies cut off, the ambassador and his small staff continued to offer what help they could to the British community.

Conclusion

Concluding, the Prime Minister spoke of the wider lessons to be drawn from the crisis. The United Nations was acting with the determination and purpose envisaged by its founders. The five permanent members of the UN Security Council – Britain, France, the People's Republic of China, the Soviet Union and the United States – had worked together to ensure the effectiveness of UN action, confrontation having been replaced by a new atmosphere of co-operation. Mrs Thatcher criticised Palestinian support for Iraq's action in seizing the territory of another state, but she recognised that efforts to find a solution to the issue of Palestinian self-determination should be maintained. Once Iraq had withdrawn from Kuwait, arrangements would be necessary to ensure Kuwaiti security and that of other countries in the region. This would require UN involvement and it was not too early to plan for this situation now.

Defence Secretary's Speech

Opening the second day of the debate on 7 September (*Hansard*, Vol 177, No 153, cols 836-44), the Secretary of State for Defence, Mr Tom King, said that the Government was planning to send more troops to the region and that their composition was under consideration. Britain's deployment of forces had already cost £75 million, and operating costs were about £1 million a day. Mr King said that these costs would be contained within the existing defence budget if possible, and that cost-sharing

was being discussed with Britain's friends in the Gulf.

The Secretary of State emphasised that British forces were deployed to defend Saudi Arabia rather than to attack Kuwait or Iraq and to ensure the effective implementation of the UN embargo against Iraq. 'Our immediate concern has been to join in the efforts to avoid further aggression and then to end the present aggression by peaceful means by making the United Nations embargo work. If it does not, then of course we have had to make it clear that we cannot rule out anything.' Mr King praised the 'impressive contribution' of the United States, which had already deployed more than 100,000 troops to the Gulf area. Though British forces were under national command and control, Mr King acknowledged the need for effective co-ordination of the multinational forces in the Gulf, which, he said, was being achieved in the naval field.

Opposition Views

Speaking on 6 September (*Hansard*, Vol 177, No 152, cols 743-51), the Leader of the official Opposition, Mr Neil Kinnock, stressed the need for Iraqi withdrawal from Kuwait, the restoration of the legitimate Government, the release of hostages and a lifting of restrictions on diplomats. In addition, all the UN resolutions required unconditional fulfilment by Iraq. Supporting the UN action and the commitment of forces, he said that there was no possibility of concessions on any of these objectives. Pressure against Iraq had to be sustained and sanctions given 'the fullest possible opportunity of working'. Iraq could not be permitted to trade with or raise credit from anyone.

On the issue of military action, Mr Kinnock said that this could shatter the international consensus if it were taken when sanctions had only been in force for a matter of weeks or months or where no further effort had been made to achieve UN agreement. Although military action was legal under international law in some circumstances, the potential consequences of taking it without 'complete and unarguable United Nations authority' would include further turmoil, terrorism, an increase in nationalism and fundamentalism and the possible destabilisation of strategic allies.

Concluding, Mr Kinnock said that, once the main UN objectives had been achieved, there had to be a complete and sustained embargo on arms sales and equipment to Iraq. In addition, Iraq's chemical weapons and its chemical weapon manufacturing capacity had to be destroyed. Monitoring of its nuclear plant and weapon-making capacity was also needed. Iraq also had to make reparations, especially to poorer countries further impoverished by its aggression.

The leader of the Liberal Democrats, Mr Paddy Ashdown, said that Iraq, in line with UN resolutions, had to withdraw from Kuwait unconditionally, return Kuwait to its legitimate government and release foreign hostages. He supported the stationing of deterrent forces in response to Saudi Arabia's request for help. If any further Iraqi aggression took place, the multinational force would feel free to make an immediate response.

Looking to the future, Mr Ashdown said that, in the event of sanctions failing, force might have to be used, but that this would have to be a matter of last resort and receive the backing of the international community and the United Nations.

Government Reply

Concluding the debate on 7 September (*Hansard*, Vol 177, No 153, cols 895-903), the Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary, Mr Douglas Hurd, said that it was not right or realistic to search for a compromise which fell short of reversing Iraqi aggression.

Sanctions

On sanctions, Mr Hurd said that the oil trade, on which Iraq relied for foreign currency, had been stopped. Iraq would not run out of oil, but it should run out of money, and 'all governments must ensure that Iraq cannot trade, cannot obtain access to Kuwait's assets and cannot find ways around UN sanctions to secure credit or cash'. He added that food could be supplied on humanitarian grounds, but it was necessary for the UN Security Council to establish that such a need existed. 'The humanitarian clause must be objectively assessed and decided by those who are responsible for the resolution.'

Military Option

Mr Hurd said that both sides of the House had accepted that the military option could not be excluded; the question under discussion was its wisdom and efficacy. The Government believed that it could not be right to put the choice entirely and wholly within the machinery of the United Nations which included vetoes. He emphasised: 'We cannot leave open the possibility that necessary action against the aggressor would be blocked by such means. . . . The certainty that the aggressor will lose . . . is crucial to a peaceful solution. If that certainty is qualified by some doubt, by some feeling in the mind of the aggressor that he might escape with his booty, the chances of a peaceful solution are reduced.'

Reflecting on his visit to the Gulf states (see p 312), Mr Hurd said that he had found the majority of Arab leaders to be 'staunch in the face of the current situation'. There was also an understanding of the need for patience as well as firmness.

British Citizens

Mr Hurd said that the plight of British hostages could not weaken or temper Britain's resistance to aggression. In return, Britain would not forget them or relax in any way its efforts to get them out safely. Over 500 British women and children had been evacuated and it was hoped that the remainder wishing to leave would follow shortly. Many women had decided to remain with their husbands. The British embassy in Baghdad was at full strength and staff were working day and night to find people and help them to get home.

Refugees

Referring to Asian and Arab refugees in three camps in Jordan, Mr Hurd noted that some 190,000 had been repatriated by a mixture of commercial flights and those organised by governments and international relief organisations. Britain was contributing £5·5 million to the International Organis-

ation for Migration, which was organising flights to repatriate thousands of refugees, most of them Sri Lankans and Bangladeshis.

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

United States-Soviet Statement

At their meeting in Helsinki, Finland, on 9 September, the United States President, Mr George Bush, and the Soviet President, Mr Mikhail Gorbachev, issued a joint statement condemning Iraq's aggression against Kuwait. They said that 'no peaceful international order is possible if larger states can devour their smaller neighbours'. Affirming their support for the UN Security Council resolutions, the two leaders called again upon the Iraqi Government to withdraw from Kuwait unconditionally, to allow the restoration of Kuwait's legitimate Government and to free all hostages held in Iraq and Kuwait. 'Nothing short of a return to the pre-2 August status of Kuwait can end Iraq's isolation.'

The statement called upon the world community to adhere to the sanctions mandated by the United Nations. The United States and the Soviet Union recognised that UN Security Council resolution 661 (see pp 278-9) permitted, in humanitarian circumstances, the import of food into Iraq and Kuwait. The UN sanctions committee would make recommendations to the Security Council on what constituted humanitarian circumstances. Both leaders agreed that such imports should be strictly monitored by the appropriate international agencies in order to ensure that food reached only those for whom it was intended, with special priority being given to meet the needs of children.

Although the United States and the Soviet Union both preferred to see a peaceful resolution to the crisis, they were prepared to consider additional steps, consistent with the UN Charter, to end Iraq's aggression. 'We must demonstrate beyond any doubt that aggression cannot and will not pay.'

Once the objectives mandated by the UN Security Council had been achieved, both presidents would direct their foreign ministers to work with countries in the region and outside it 'to develop regional security structures and measures to promote peace and stability'. It was essential to work actively to resolve all remaining conflicts in the Middle East and the Gulf.

Foreign Nationals in Iraq and Kuwait

The position of citizens from Western countries in Iraq and Kuwait remained a cause for concern throughout August and early September. Although referred to as 'guests' by the Iraqi Government, most Western citizens were barred from leaving and were considered hostages under Iraqi control.

British Protests

In a development initially described by the British Government as 'grave and sinister', the Iraqi authorities from 16 August issued instructions to British people and other Westerners in Kuwait to assemble at hotels. On 17 August, an Iraqi spokesman announced that Westerners would be detained at key military and civilian installations in Kuwait and Iraq. The British Government protested against such use of civilians as a 'human shield' and continued to emphasise to the Iraqi regime its obligations under international law to ensure the safety of foreigners[1] in both Iraq and occupied Kuwait. On 23 August, Britain sent Iraq a note pointing out that Iraqi citizens would be held personally responsible for involvement in illegal actions regarding the security and lives of foreign citizens.

United Nations Resolution

In response to concern over the safety of foreign nationals, the UN Security Council unanimously adopted resolution 664 (1990) on 19 August demanding that Iraq permit and facilitate the immediate departure from Kuwait and Iraq of the nationals of third countries, and grant immediate and continuing access of consular officials to such nationals. It demanded that Iraq take no action to jeopardise the safety, security or health of such nationals. The resolution reaffirmed the Security Council's rejection of Iraq's annexation of Kuwait (see p 279) and called on Iraq to rescind its orders for the closure of diplomatic and consular missions in Kuwait and the withdrawal of the immunity of their personnel.

European Political Co-operation

European Community foreign ministers met on 21 August to review the implementation of measures against Iraq (see p 278). They stated that any attempt by Iraq to harm or threaten the safety of European citizens would be considered a grave offence directed against the Community and all its members and would provoke a united response. They further warned individual Iraqis that they would be held personally responsible for any illegal acts committed against foreign nationals by them in Iraq or Kuwait.

Regarding the Iraqi demand that foreign missions should close in Kuwait by 24 August, it was decided that Community member states should keep their embassies open despite the risks to diplomatic personnel. Following the passage of the 24 August deadline, Iraqi soldiers surrounded the British and other embassies which defied the order to close but made no attempt to force access. Water and electricity supplies to several embassies were cut, as were telephone links.

Britain considers that the Iraqi action against the embassies violates the 1961 Vienna Convention. Under its terms Britain has the right to maintain an embassy in a country with which it has diplomatic relations, and its diplomatic staff are entitled to immunity. Under international law Kuwait remains an independent country, since the Iraqi annexation has been declared null and void by the UN Security Council.

Iraqi Offer to Release Foreign Women and Children

Between 18 and 28 August, 159 of the estimated 2,500 British citizens in Kuwait were known to have

[1]The Fourth Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (1949) prohibits the taking of hostages and the use of 'protected persons' to render areas immune from military operations. Such people have the right to humane treatment and protection from violence and reprisals. They also have the right to leave the territory. Individual or mass forcible transfers, as well as deportations of protected persons from occupied territory to the territory of the occupying power, are prohibited, regardless of motive.

been detained by the Iraqi authorities. About 600 British people were believed to be in Iraq itself (see p 280). Following appearances on Iraqi television with groups of British families, President Saddam Hussein decreed, on 28 August, that all foreign women and children were free either to stay or to leave Iraq. The first contingent of British women and children arrived back in Britain on 2 September. Diplomatic efforts to effect further evacuations, mainly through Jordan, were maintained.

Military and Diplomatic Activity

Western European Union

The member countries of the Western European Union (WEU)[1] met on 21 August to consider greater co-ordination of Europe's military response to Iraq's aggression and to the effective enforcement of sanctions. Seven member countries (excluding Portugal and Luxembourg) offered to contribute naval forces to the multinational force in the Gulf. It was agreed that an *ad hoc* group of foreign and defence ministry representatives should examine ways of co-ordinating shipping operations, logistical support and the exchange of intelligence information.

The Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary described these measures as 'co-ordination on a European scale within the WEU, in which clearly Britain will play a leading role, alongside – in parallel with – co-ordination with the United States and with Australia and with Canada'.

At the meeting, the Federal Republic of Germany announced its intention to amend its constitution to enable German forces to be used outside Europe in pursuit of UN Security Council resolutions.

British Measures

On 13 August the British Government received a request for assistance from the legitimate Government of Kuwait under Article 51 of the UN Charter (see p 313). Mr William Waldegrave, Minister of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, announced that Britain consequently had the right under international law to take the necessary military or other steps, without further recourse to the UN Security Council, to ensure that economic sanctions against Iraq were implemented. The United States had responded positively to the same request from the Kuwaiti Government and similarly viewed such freedom of action in the Gulf as legitimate.

In addition to those British forces already committed to the defence of Saudi Arabia and other threatened states in the area (see pp 279-80), the Secretary of State for Defence announced on 23 August that a further squadron of Tornado aircraft, supported by a Royal Air Force Rapier detachment, would be deployed in the Gulf. On 29 August, Britain announced that a Royal Navy destroyer would augment the Armilla patrol and that three minehunters heading at that time to the eastern Mediterranean would proceed straight to the Gulf.

In a statement on 14 September, Mr King announced the Government's decision to send an armoured brigade, including 120 tanks and over 6,000 troops, to Saudi Arabia, together with additional Tornado aircraft. In so doing, Britain's purpose was 'first, to ensure that no further aggression can possibly succeed and that the defensive shield is sure for Saudi Arabia and the threatened Gulf states. Secondly, to ensure that Saddam Hussein understands that while we seek the implementation of the United Nations' resolutions by peaceful means, other options remain available and that, one way or another, he will lose.'

Mr King and Mr Hurd visited the Gulf region between 27 August and 5 September. On 28 August, Mr King said that the purpose of his visit to Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Oman was to make 'an effective contribution to ensuring the safety of threatened states in the area, and to supporting United Nations resolutions, particularly in relation to the embargo of Iraq'.

Mr Hurd's itinerary included Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, Oman, Yemen, Saudi Arabia and Jordan. On 29 August he said that Britain wanted 'to show that alongside the military deployments we have a very lively and active diplomacy, stiffening those [countries] who need to be stiffened, reassuring those who need to be reassured'. He emphasised during his tour that military action against Iraq would be difficult and costly, but a peaceful solution to the crisis would only be possible if sanctions were made fully effective.

Enforcement of United Nations Sanctions

On 25 August the UN Security Council adopted resolution 665 (1990) by 13 votes to 0 (Yemen and Cuba abstaining), aimed at ensuring strict compliance with the economic sanctions against Iraq. It called upon those member states deploying maritime forces to the Gulf area, in support of the legitimate Government of Kuwait, to 'use such measures commensurate to the specific circumstances as may be necessary under the authority of the Security Council to halt all inward and outward maritime shipping in order to inspect and verify their cargoes and destinations and to ensure strict implementation of the provisions related to such shipping laid down in resolution 661 (1990)' (see pp 278-9). Member states were invited to co-operate, 'with maximum use of political and diplomatic measures', to ensure compliance with such sanctions. States were further requested to co-ordinate their actions using, as appropriate, mechanisms of the Military Staff Committee (see p 313) and to submit reports to the Security Council to facilitate the monitoring of the resolution.

European Community Position

European Community foreign ministers, meeting in Rome on 7 September, reaffirmed their support for the UN Security Council resolutions relating to the Gulf crisis. They agreed that full implementation of the trade embargo was the essential condition for bringing about a peaceful solution.

Being aware of the burden which the crisis imposed on the economies of many countries, member states were determined to contribute to the effort being made by such countries to implement the embargo. The Community would provide short-term financial assistance to Jordan, Turkey and Egypt, as the countries most immediately affected by the implementation of sanctions. This assistance would take place within the framework of concerted

[1]Comprising Belgium, Britain, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain.

action with other industrialised countries as well as states in the region. In the prevailing situation, foreign ministers considered that it was essential to intensify international co-operation through institutions such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. The newly created European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (see p 209) should help to alleviate the difficulties experienced by the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

The Community recognised that a major effort was necessary to assist in the repatriation of refugees from Kuwait and Iraq and was prepared to commit substantial resources for additional humanitarian aid.

Efforts would be made promptly to conclude a trade agreement with the countries of the Gulf Co-operation Council (see p 278), and member states remained committed to the development of the relaunched Euro-Arab dialogue (see p 206). Although Iraq's aggression against Kuwait had delayed progress towards the solution of other problems in the region, such as the Arab-Israeli conflict (see pp 205-6), the Palestinian issue and the situation in Lebanon, the Community reaffirmed its commitment to a comprehensive and lasting settlement in the Middle East.

Arab States

Foreign ministers and other officials from 13 Arab League member states (excluding, among others, Iraq, Yemen and Jordan) attended a meeting in Cairo on 30 and 31 August to review the Gulf crisis. They expressed support for the implementation of UN resolutions; demanded that foreign nationals be allowed to leave Iraq and Kuwait; stressed the legal status of diplomatic missions in Kuwait; and demanded compensation from Iraq arising from its invasion of Kuwait.

Iraqi Position

The Iraqi Government has maintained its claim to Kuwait (see pp 277-8) and has rejected all international pressure to withdraw its occupation forces.

On 12 August, President Saddam Hussein proposed the withdrawal of Israel from its occupied territories (see pp 205-6), together with Syria's withdrawal from Lebanon and a withdrawal between Iraq and Iran (see below). In addition, he proposed the withdrawal of Western forces from Saudi Arabia, to be replaced by an Arab force, and the 'formulation of arrangements for the situation in Kuwait'. If the United States did not respond, its 'evil intentions and aggressive schemes' would be strongly resisted. Yemen and the Palestine Liberation Organisation expressed support for the initiative, but it was rejected by the United States. Iran did not consider that the linking of an Iraqi withdrawal from its territory with other international issues was in accordance with accepted international norms.

Hostilities between Iraq and Iran had come to an end in 1988 with the adoption of a ceasefire (see pp 267-8, 1988), but no peace accord had since been concluded. However, on 14 August, Iraq announced that it would withdraw its forces from border areas with Iran and would facilitate the release of prisoners of war. Iran welcomed the move, but maintained its insistence that Iraq withdraw from Kuwait.

On 19 August the Iraqi President proposed that foreign forces should be withdrawn from the Gulf, that the United States should pledge not to use force against Iraq and that the blockade of Iraq should be ended. For its part Iraq would allow foreigners to travel outside the country if these conditions were met. This plan was rejected by the United States and by Britain, as were Iraq's protestations that it was defending itself against aggression.

Iraq refused to comply with the resolutions of the UN Security Council, which it claimed had been imposed by the United States. On 28 August the Iraqi Government announced that Kuwait had become 'the nineteenth governate' in the structure of administrative divisions in Iraq. The Iraqi Foreign Minister, Mr Tariq Aziz, maintained an uncompromising position during subsequent talks in Amman with the UN Secretary-General. On 1 September, Mr Aziz said that the Gulf crisis was an Arab problem requiring an Arab solution. He expressed Iraq's readiness to co-operate with the United Nations, but claimed that some states on the Security Council were not neutral and were supporting aggression against Iraq.

On 5 September, President Saddam Hussein called Muslims everywhere to wage *jihad* (holy war) against the leaders of Saudi Arabia and Egypt, and against Western forces in the Gulf.

The United Nations Charter

The UN Charter says that the Security Council shall determine the existence of any threat to the peace or act of aggression and empowers the Council to take action against an aggressor, including the imposition of economic sanctions. In addition, under Article 42, 'it may take such action by air, sea or land forces as may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security'. Article 46 states that plans for the use of force should be made by the Council, assisted by the Military Staff Committee consisting of representatives of the five permanent Council members.

Article 51 says: 'Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by Members in the exercise of this right of self-defence shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of the Security Council under the present Charter to take at any time such action as it deems necessary in order to maintain or restore international peace and security.'

Balance of Payments 1989

There was an increase in the deficit on Britain's visible trade in 1989 and a fall in the surplus on invisible transactions. As a result, the deficit on current account rose from £15,200 million in 1988 to £19,100 million in 1989. Outward portfolio investment increased from a little under £10,000 million to nearly £37,000 million.

Revised figures for Britain's balance of payments for the last 11 years are contained in the latest Balance of Payments 'Pink Book', published on 22 August.[1] Transactions are classified into two main groups: current account transactions, covering exports and imports of goods and services, investment income and most transfers; and transactions in British external assets and liabilities, covering, among other things, inward and outward investment, borrowing and lending overseas by other British residents and changes in the official reserves. This article briefly describes the major changes in the balance of payments in 1989.

The balancing item reflects errors and omissions in the recording of capital flows. In 1989 it amounted to over £15,000 million, having been well over £3,000 million in every year since 1984. Of necessity, this throws doubts on the quality of figures and should be borne in mind when interpreting them.

[1] *United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1990 Edition.* Central Statistical Office. HMSO, £10-95. ISBN 0 11 620443 5.

Current Account

The deficit on the current account in 1989 was £19,126 million compared with £15,151 million in 1988 (see Table 1). The deficit on visible trade of £23,840 million more than offset the surplus on invisible trade of £4,714 million. Between 1988 and 1989 visible exports and imports both rose in value by 15 per cent (see Table 2).

Visible Trade

Following the pattern of recent years, visible trade was characterised by a surplus on oil and deficits on most other categories (see Table 3). However, the oil surplus, at a little under £1,500 million, was the lowest since 1980. There was an increase in the deficit on trade in semi-manufactures and finished manufactures – from £15,100 million to £16,800 million. Oil accounted for 6 per cent of exports in 1989 and for 4 per cent of imports. Semi-manufactures and finished manufactures made up 81 per cent of exports and 79 per cent of imports; in 1979 they had accounted for 76 per cent of exports and 64 per cent of imports.

In 1989 Britain had deficits on trade with the rest of the European Community, with other Western European countries, with North America and with other developed countries and a surplus on trade with the oil-exporting countries (see Table 4). The European Community accounted for 51 per cent of Britain's exports and 53 per cent of imports. Other Western European countries took 9 per cent of exports and supplied 13 per cent of imports while North America

Table 1

Summary of Balance of Payments

£ million

	1979	1984	1987	1988	1989
Visible trade balance	–3,342	–5,336	–11,223	–21,078	–23,840
Invisible trade balance	2,890	7,168	7,042	5,927	4,714
of which *Services*	*3,895*	*4,519*	*6,624*	*4,502*	*4,709*
Interest, profits and dividends	*1,205*	*4,379*	*3,820*	*4,971*	*4,582*
Transfers	*–2,210*	*–1,730*	*–3,402*	*–3,546*	*–4,577*
Current balance	**–453**	**1,832**	**–4,182**	**–15,151**	**–19,126**
Transactions in assets and liabilities					
British external assets	–40,189	–32,041	–83,633	–56,244	–86,253
British external liabilities	39,447	24,119	84,103	63,258	90,255
Allocation of Special Drawing Rights	195	–	–	–	–
Balancing item	1,000	6,091	3,713	8,136	15,124

Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

Table 2

Current Account

£ million

	1979	1984	1987	1988	1989
Exports (free on board)	40,471	70,265	79,446	80,776	92,792
Imports (free on board)	43,814	75,601	90,669	101,854	116,632
Visible trade balance	**–3,342**	**–5,336**	**–11,223**	**–21,078**	**–23,840**
Invisible trade balance	2,890	7,168	7,042	5,927	4,714
Services					
General government	–808	–1,181	–1,620	–1,800	–2,249
Private sector and public corporations					
Sea transport	182	–356	–35	–48	30
Civil aviation	257	255	–616	–905	–503
Travel	688	–49	–1,020	–2,032	–2,413
Financial services	1,724	3,198	6,123	5,184	4,919
Other services	1,852	2,652	3,792	4,103	4,425
National accounts statistical adjustment	–	–	–	–	500
Interest, profits and dividends					
General government	134	–511	–1,092	–851	–487
Private sector and public corporations	1,071	4,891	4,912	5,820	5,069
Transfers					
General government	–2,016	–2,099	–3,277	–3,248	–4,277
Private sector	–194	369	–125	–298	–300
Current balance	**–453**	**1,832**	**–4,182**	**–15,151**	**–19,126**

Table 3

Overseas Trade by Commodity

Balance of payments basis

£ million

	1979	1984	1987	1988	1989
Exports					
Food, beverages and tobacco	2,908	4,677	5,537	5,482	6,503
Basic materials	1,320	2,069	2,251	2,134	2,360
Oil	4,143	14,834	8,445	6,018	5,907
Other mineral fuels and lubricants	166	457	303	242	256
Semi-manufactured goods	12,462	18,134	22,438	24,096	26,881
Finished manufactured goods	18,488	28,421	38,213	40,816	48,597
Others	984	1,673	2,259	1,988	2,288
Total	**40,471**	**70,265**	**79,446**	**80,776**	**92,792**
Imports					
Food, beverages and tobacco	5,841	8,297	9,532	9,969	10,747
Basic materials	3,695	5,074	5,222	5,469	5,927
Oil	4,881	7,901	4,262	3,221	4,426
Other mineral fuels and lubricants	517	2,029	1,561	1,469	1,479
Semi-manufactured goods	11,836	18,696	24,321	28,034	31,033
Finished manufactured goods	16,404	32,386	44,442	51,978	61,267
Others	640	1,218	1,329	1,714	1,753
Total	**43,814**	**75,601**	**90,669**	**101,854**	**116,632**
Balances					
Food, beverages and tobacco	–2,933	–3,620	–3,995	–4,487	–4,244
Basic materials	–2,375	–3,005	–2,971	–3,335	–3,567
Oil	–738	6,933	4,183	2,797	1,481
Other mineral fuels and lubricants	–351	–1,572	–1,258	–1,227	–1,223
Semi-manufactured goods	626	–562	–1,883	–3,938	–4,152
Finished manufactured goods	2,084	–3,965	–6,229	–11,162	–12,670
Others	344	455	930	274	535
Visible trade balance	**–3,342**	**–5,336**	**–11,223**	**–21,078**	**–23,840**

Table 4

Overseas Trade by Area

Balance of payments basis *£ million*

	1979	1984	1987	1988	1989
Exports					
European Community	18,084	32,962	39,026	40,904	47,296
Other Western Europe	4,766	7,072	7,791	7,457	8,159
North America	4,763	11,464	12,998	12,652	14,435
Other developed countries	2,472	3,704	4,088	4,524	5,516
Oil-exporting countries	3,648	5,801	5,282	4,935	5,719
Rest of the world	6,737	9,260	10,262	10,304	11,667
Total	**40,471**	**70,265**	**79,446**	**80,776**	**92,792**
Imports					
European Community	20,767	36,426	48,502	54,455	62,266
Other Western Europe	5,880	10,802	12,462	13,458	14,896
North America	5,810	10,517	10,378	12,374	15,162
Other developed countries	2,752	5,210	6,960	8,037	8,630
Oil-exporting countries	2,940	2,698	1,622	1,840	1,936
Rest of the world	5,665	9,948	10,744	11,691	13,742
Total	**43,814**	**75,601**	**90,669**	**101,854**	**116,632**
Balances					
European Community	–2,683	–3,463	–9,476	–13,551	–14,970
Other Western Europe	–1,114	–3,730	–4,672	–6,001	–6,737
North America	–1,047	947	2,619	278	–727
Other developed countries	–280	–1,506	–2,872	–3,513	–3,114
Oil-exporting countries	708	3,103	3,659	3,096	3,783
Rest of the world	1,072	–687	–482	–1,386	–2,075
Visible trade balance	**–3,342**	**–5,336**	**–11,223**	**–21,078**	**–23,840**

accounted for 16 per cent of exports and 13 per cent of imports. Other developed countries took 6 per cent of exports and supplied 7 per cent of imports. The oil-exporting countries accounted for 6 per cent of exports but only 2 per cent of imports. As a proportion of Britain's trade, the European Community had, since 1979, become relatively more important for both exports and imports while the oil-exporting countries had become relatively less important for both (and for imports, less important in absolute terms).

Invisible Trade

Credits on invisible trade in 1989 amounted to £109,098 million and debits to £104,384 million, giving a surplus of £4,714 million (see Table 2). The surplus in 1988 had been £5,927 million. There was a surplus of £4,709 million on services compared with one of £4,502 million in the previous year. The 1989 figure includes a national accounts statistical adjustment of £500 million to allow for a likely understatement of the contribution of net exports of goods and services to gross domestic product. Interest, profits

Table 5

Summary of Transactions in Assets[a] and Liabilities[b] *£ million*

	1979	1984	1987	1988	1989
Overseas direct investment in Britain	3,030	–181	8,681	9,218	18,344
Overseas portfolio investment in Britain	1,549	1,288	17,710	13,220	10,860
British direct investment overseas	–5,889	–6,033	–19,198	–20,685	–19,365
British portfolio investment overseas	–887	–9,869	3,323	–9,870	–36,781
Borrowing from overseas	35,084	23,051	56,139	39,916	59,629
Deposits and lending overseas	–32,216	–16,304	–54,949	–22,037	–34,604
Official reserves[a]	–1,059	908	–12,012	–2,761	5,439
Other external liabilities of general government	–216	–40	1,572	904	1,422
Other external assets of central government	–137	–743	–796	–891	–942
Total	**–742**	**–7,923**	**469**	**7,015**	**4,002**
Allocation of Special Drawing Rights	195	–	–	–	–

[a] Increase –/ decrease +.
[b] Increase +/ decrease –.
Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

and dividends had a surplus of £4,582 million (£4,971 million in 1988) and transfers a deficit of £4,577 million (£3,546 million in 1988).

The services account consisted of the usual deficit of general government (£2,249 million compared with £1,800 million a year earlier) and surplus of the private sector and public corporations (£6,458 million compared with £6,302 million in 1988). Sea transport moved from a small deficit in 1988 to a modest surplus of £30 million in 1989 – the first since 1980. The deficit on civil aviation fell from £905 million to £503 million following a sharp rise in British airlines' revenue from overseas passengers. The deficit on travel increased once again, from £2,032 million to £2,413 million, with a particularly large increase in outgoings for leisure travel. The surplus on financial services (for which only credits are recorded) was £4,919 million compared with £5,184 million a year earlier, the decline being more than accounted for by a fall in the earnings of insurance underwriters from £1,271 million to £560 million. At £4,425 million, the surplus on other services (including, for example, earnings from consultancy and royalties) was £322 million higher than a year earlier.

On interest, profits and dividends, the customary surplus of the private sector fell, from £6,007 million in 1988 to £5,238 million in 1989, but still outweighed the deficit incurred by general government and public corporations (which fell by a smaller amount) to give an overall surplus of £4,582 million – nearly £400 million lower than in 1988.

Earnings of British financial institutions ('the City') are included in both financial services and interest, profits and dividends. Net earnings fell from £7,356 million in 1988 to £6,184 million in 1989. The decline was wholly due to a sharp deterioration in the performance of both insurance and banking. The surplus on insurance fell from £3,515 million to £2,927 million, largely because of the decline in the earnings of insurance underwriters already mentioned. Earnings fell particularly sharply at Lloyd's, from £678 million to £196 million. Transactions in banking moved from a surplus of £780 million in 1988 to a deficit of £678 million in 1989. Credits rose by over £12,000 million, with substantial increases in interest on overseas lending. However, with interest on overseas borrowing rising even more sharply, debits increased by nearly £14,000 million.

The deficit on transfers rose from £3,546 million in 1988 to £4,577 million in 1989. With the deficit on private transfers practically unchanged at £300 million, the increase in the overall deficit was wholly attributable to the rise in the deficit on general government transfers. On this account, debits to European Community institutions alone increased by almost £900 million.

Transactions in External Assets and Liabilities

Transactions in Britain's external assets and liabilities are shown in Table 5. Assets rose by over £86,000 million in 1989, having increased by some £56,000 million in 1988. The rise in external liabilities was more than £90,000 million in 1989 compared with around £63,000 million a year earlier. On the assets side, there were very large increases in British portfolio investment overseas – from some £10,000 million to almost £37,000 million – and in lending overseas. On the liabilities side, there were substantial rises in direct investment in Britain – a doubling from £9,000 million to £18,000 million – and in borrowing from overseas. The official reserves fell by £5,439 million in 1989, having risen by £2,761 million in 1988.

At the end of 1989 Britain had identified external assets of £980,000 million and identified external liabilities of £867,000 million, giving a surplus of assets over liabilities of £113,000 million. Direct investment holdings overseas amounted to £140,000 million and portfolio investment holdings to £221,000 million compared with £106,000 million and £149,000 million respectively a year earlier. Overseas residents' holdings in Britain of direct investments were valued at £87,000 million and of portfolio investments £100,000 million compared with £67,000 million and £77,000 million respectively a year previously.

Trade Union Membership

A new analysis of trade union membership in Britain has been published, using data from a sample size large enough to permit detailed study of individual characteristics for the first time.

Data on Trade Unions

Other official sources have in the past provided some information on the trade union movement – for example, the total number of members has been available from the annual returns to the Certification Officer (see p 219). Data have also been available from various surveys. Recent data on aspects such as age and gender come from surveys of individuals. However, the relatively small sample size of these surveys has meant that analysis of particular individual characteristics, such as the occupational distribution of trade unionism, has not been feasible.

To remedy this, the 1989 Labour Force Survey (LFS) included a question on trade union membership for the first time. There are no major exclusions in the sample coverage of the LFS, so it is representative of all those in employment in Britain.[1] Its sample size – some 120,000 individuals – is large enough to permit extensive analysis of individual characteristics. An article in the August 1990 edition of *Employment Gazette*[2] examines the information that the survey has provided.

General Trends

The survey finds that the proportion of employees in Great Britain who in 1989 were members of a union or staff association – usually termed 'union density' – was 39 per cent. It was higher among men than among women, and among manual workers than non-manual workers. Full-time employees were twice as likely as part-time employees to be mem-

[1]The LFS samples individuals throughout Britain; however, by convention, most data are presented only for Great Britain.

[2]Available from HMSO, £3·80. ISBN 0 11 728746 6.

bers of a union. Among part-time employees, women were much more likely than men to be trade unionists (23 per cent, compared with 12 per cent for male part-time employees), a difference probably due to part-time status being a longer-term feature of labour market experience for women. There was little difference between manufacturing and non-manufacturing industry in their levels of union membership. Union density was much higher in large workplaces than in small – it reached 48 per cent in workplaces with 25 or more employees, as opposed to only 11 per cent in those with fewer than six employees. Densities also varied according to length of service with employers – among men who had 20 or more years' service with their present employers, it reached 64 per cent, but was only 28 per cent for men with one year's service. The table (see below) shows some key data on union density.

The LFS results can be used to derive a total union membership of 9·1 million in Britain for 1989. This compares with a figure of 10·2 million derived from the annual returns from the Certification Officer (see p 219). However, the LFS figures exclude people who were unemployed or retired but retain membership of their union. Moreover, the LFS figures count individuals in membership of a trade union, whereas the Certification Officer's figures record the total membership. Therefore, an individual who was a member of two unions would appear once in the LFS figures but twice in the Certification Officer's returns.

Occupation and Industry

The survey shows that densities differed markedly across different occupational groups. Densities were high among energy and water supply (76 per cent), transport and communication (62 per cent), miscellaneous services (52 per cent) and mineral extraction and metal manufacturing (48 per cent). They were low in groups such as selling (14 per cent), management (23 per cent), farming and fishing (24 per cent) and catering and cleaning (28 per cent). However, some of these latter groups were, overall, quite important in the number of union members they produced, since there were many people employed in them. Thus, for example, catering and cleaning accounted for over 9 per cent of all union members, despite its low membership density. Union density was very low both among the self-employed (10 per cent among men and 7 per cent among women) and also those on government training and employment schemes (6 per cent among males[1]).

Variations over Time

Since this is the first time that a question on trade union membership has been asked as part of the LFS, there are no directly comparable data. An earlier survey, the Workplace Industrial Relations Survey, did ask about membership, although its data are not directly compatible with those from the LFS. Comparing the 1984 Workplace Industrial Relations Survey data by sectors with the 1989 LFS, there are variations in some sectors that appear too large to be due simply to sampling error and the differences between the two surveys. It seems probable, therefore, that between 1984 and 1989 there were marked falls in density in the energy and water; transport; public administration; vehicle and instrument manufacture; chemicals; and timber, furniture, paper and printing sectors. Membership probably remained stable in the food and drink manufacture, rubber and plastics manufacture, medical services and other services sectors. In comparison, the Certification Officer's returns show a fall of 8·9 per cent in total union membership over the period 1983-88.

[1]The sample size of women on schemes was too small to provide a reliable estimate.

Regional Variations

The survey shows that in most industries, density is above average in the northern regions of Great Britain, and below average in the southern regions. There were some notable variations within industries by regions. For example, union density in construction varied from 17 per cent in the South East excluding Greater London to 45 per cent in the North. Overall, 36 per cent of trade union members lived in the South East, the South West and East Anglia, compared with 45 per cent of all employees. Density was noticeably higher in Northern Ireland (49 per cent) than in Great Britain (39 per cent).

Union Density in Great Britain

Spring 1989	Percentage
Male	44
Female	33
Manual	43
Non-manual	35
Manufacturing	41
Non-manufacturing	37
Full-time	43
Part-time	22
Size of workplace:	
Under 6 employees	11
6-24 employees	23
Over 24 employees	48
All employees	39
Self-employed	9

Energy Policy

The Government has decided to proceed with a public flotation as the means of privatising PowerGen. More help for wind power projects and a new energy efficiency scheme have also been announced. British Coal has opened a pilot plant to produce liquid transport fuels from coal.

Electricity Privatisation

In a statement on 23 August the Secretary of State for Energy, Mr John Wakeham, confirmed the Government's intention to privatise PowerGen plc by means of a public flotation. The discussions between the Government and Hanson plc (see p 290)

had ended. The Government had taken into account the likely level of proceeds to the taxpayer from a flotation in the light of PowerGen's reassessment of the company's prospects. A bid from Hanson, Mr Wakeham said, would have had to be significantly higher than the likely net flotation proceeds. He had concluded that the terms on which a trade sale could be completed offered insufficient advantage compared with flotation in February 1991, which would include the benefits of wider share ownership.

Wind Power

Also on 23 August, Mr Colin Moynihan, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Energy, announced government plans to help wind power operators in the development of new projects (see pp 243-4, 1988). Wind power, he said, would contribute both to the reduction of environmental pollution and to the containment of global warming (see pp 222-4). It was estimated that if present development plans were successful and were accompanied by cost reductions, onshore wind energy in Britain could generate up to 30 terawatt[1] hours of electricity a year by 2025, some 10 per cent of current consumption. Offshore wind power had even more potential in the longer term, but probably at higher cost.

The Government's research and development expenditure on wind power exceeded £35 million to date [since 1976], Mr Moynihan said, and annual expenditure continued to mount steadily. In 1990-91 it was expected to exceed £6 million, an increase of about 20 per cent on 1989-90. 'The programme . . . has helped to create a body of wind technology expertise in this country which is second to none. . . . The provisions of the non-fossil fuel obligation [see p 290] should also help to encourage more wind operators to enter the market.'

Mr Moynihan said that the first order for renewables under the non-fossil fuel obligation was expected shortly and would result in a significant amount of new renewable capacity, even though the number of wind projects would at first be fairly modest. The Government, however, planned a new allotment under the obligation for wind energy in 1991.

Energy Efficiency

On 16 August, Mr Tony Baldry, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Energy, announced details of a Home Energy Efficiency Scheme (see pp 110-11 and 320, 1989) for Great Britain. This would give grants for insulation measures and energy advice to those on low incomes, and is subject to parliamentary approval.

Grants would be available for loft, tank and pipe insulation, draughtproofing and hot water tank insulation, and basic energy advice. (Such advice would only be available to applicants who were having other grant-aided work carried out.) Eligibility would be dependent upon the applicant being in receipt of one of four benefits: income support, housing benefit, family credit or community charge benefit. He or she would be expected to pay a fixed contribution towards the work, which might be carried out by people on government training schemes.

[1]1 terawatt = 1 million megawatts.

The scheme would be managed by an agency on behalf of the Department of Energy. 'In addition to the processing of applications and award of grants', Mr Baldry said, 'the agency will be responsible for specifying standards of materials and workmanship. . . . To maximise the benefit of the scheme to eligible households, the criteria will include competition on price, while maintaining an emphasis on quality.'

Coal Technology

On 17 August the Secretary of State for Wales, Mr David Hunt, opened British Coal's coal liquefaction plant at Point of Ayr (Clwyd). The three-year project, backed by the Department of Energy, the Welsh Office, and the European Community among others, and costing £40 million, involves the conversion of 2·5 tonnes of coal a day into petrol, diesel and other transport fuels. The process has been developed over the past ten years at the Coal Research Establishment at Cheltenham (Gloucestershire). Mr Hunt described the plant as a testbed in assessing the future commercial prospects for large-scale coal liquefaction. The liquid solvent extraction process to be tested at Point of Ayr, he said, was 'up to twice as productive as other liquefaction methods used in other countries'.

Shorter Notes

STRATEGIC EXPORTS

A second round of relaxations of controls on exports laid down by the Co-ordinating Committee for Multilateral Export Controls (COCOM)[1] came into effect on 11 August. The commodity groups concerned are computers and software, telecommunications equipment and machine tools. The changes follow those announced in June (see p 252).

Source: Department of Trade and Industry news release, 10.8.90.

COMPANY INVESTIGATIONS

The Government has responded to the House of Commons Trade and Industry Committee's report on company investigations (for publication details see p 225) with the publication of a White Paper on 2 August. The White Paper was announced by the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Corporate Affairs, Mr John Redwood, who welcomed many of the Committee's recommendations, several of which, he said, were current practice within the Department of Trade and Industry. Other recommendations were accepted by the Department either in whole or in part.

The White Paper stresses that there has to be realism about the expected achievements of a sys-

[1]COCOM is an informal body of countries of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation except Iceland, plus Australia and Japan, and was established in 1950. It co-ordinates controls on East-West trade and those on the export of strategic equipment, including atomic energy material, munitions and industrial goods of potential military use.

tem set up to regulate business. A balance has to be struck between protection of investors and creditors and the burden and costs which such protection imposes on business. The Government is determined that there should be an effective regulatory environment which provides protection to consumers and investors and deals effectively with fraud and malpractice in the conduct of commerce. This commitment is demonstrated by:

- the new regulatory system introduced by the Financial Services Act 1986 (see pp 51-4, 1986);
- the establishment of the Serious Fraud Office in 1988 (see p 133, 1988, and p 305);
- the creation of a separate Investigations Division within the Department of Trade and Industry in 1988; and
- new powers to assist overseas regulators in the Companies Act 1989 (see pp 188-90, 1989).

The White Paper notes that the Department of Trade and Industry has undertaken increased numbers of investigations and follow-ups against the background of these changes. The Committee had undertaken a very wide-ranging inquiry which had had to deal with often conflicting evidence in a limited time. However, the Government did not believe that the Committee's report had fully acknowledged the improvements achieved in company investigations in recent years.

The White Paper provides a detailed response to each of the Committee's 34 recommendations.

Sources: *Company Investigations. Government's Response to the Third Report of the House of Commons Trade and Industry Committee: 1989-90 Session.* Cm 1149. HMSO, £3·70. ISBN 0 10 111492 3; Department of Trade and Industry news release, 2.8.90.

ENVIRONMENTAL, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

Regional Trends

The 1990 edition of *Regional Trends*, the main official statistical publication outlining regional contrasts in Britain, has been published. For the first time, it includes some data series for all local authority districts, significantly improving coverage over that of previous editions.

Regional Trends[1] provides a profile of each region, giving data for counties and regions. Its coverage includes population, housing, transport and the environment, health, law enforcement, education, employment, industry and agriculture. It also provides comparative regional data for some of the other members of the European Community.

The Regions

For statistical purposes, Britain is divided into 11 standard planning regions: North, Yorkshire and Humberside, East Midlands, East Anglia, South East, South West, West Midlands, North West, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The South East is much the biggest in population terms, with more than 17 million people – some 30 per cent of the total. For some purposes, it is therefore subdivided into Greater London and Rest of the South East. The report points to contrasts between the regions in many walks of life. For example:

– the North West has the highest proportion of births outside marriage, and Northern Ireland the lowest;

– the South East has the highest proportion of employees in service industries, and the East Midlands the lowest;

– Wales has the lowest rate of robbery recorded by the police, and Northern Ireland the highest;

– people in Yorkshire and Humberside drink more alcohol than in any other region of England and Wales, and those in East Anglia drink the least;

– Northern Ireland has the highest proportion of offences cleared up by the police, and the South East the lowest;

– the South West has the lowest proportion of cigarette smokers in Great Britain, and Scotland the highest; and

– the North has, with Scotland, the highest driving test pass rate in Great Britain, while the West Midlands has the lowest.

[1] *Regional Trends.* No 25, 1990. Central Statistical Office. HMSO, £21·50. ISBN 0 11 620442 7.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

The report covers a wide range of topics. Some of the regional differences that emerge are summarised below.

Population

The number of inhabitants is growing fastest in East Anglia, which had an average annual population growth of 1 per cent between 1981 and 1988. By contrast, Yorkshire and Humberside, the North West and Scotland all saw slight falls in population, at a rate of some 0·2 per cent a year. The most densely populated areas tend to be the former metropolitan counties. Population density is also quite high in south Wales, the South East and in several of the north-western counties. The table on p 322 summarises some key population statistics for the regions.

Northern Ireland has a very young population, with 27 per cent below the age of 16. It was the only part of Britain where the fertility rate in 1988 was above that necessary for long-term replacement of the population. The highest concentrations of population over retirement age are along the south coast; there is also a high proportion of elderly people in the South West and in Wales.

In 1986-88 over half the ethnic minority population in private households in Great Britain lived in the South East. The South East and the West Midlands had the highest proportions of the population from such groups, with Scotland, Wales and the South West having the lowest.

Housing

Tenure varies quite considerably by region. Owner-occupation is highest in the Rest of the South East, at 73 per cent in 1988. It is lowest in Scotland, at only 45 per cent. It averaged 67 per cent in England as a whole. Between 1981 and 1988, however, it increased fastest in the North, where it rose from 48 to 58 per cent.

House prices also vary greatly between regions: the average price in 1988 was highest in Greater London (£77,700) and lowest in Northern Ireland (£29,900). East Anglia saw the fastest rise in house prices between 1985 and 1988 (89 per cent); they rose least in Northern Ireland (18 per cent).

The South West and East Anglia have the highest proportions of recent (post-1970) properties, while the highest proportions of old (pre-1890) houses in Great Britain are in Wales, East Anglia, the South West and Greater London. In 1988, homes were built at the fastest rate in East Anglia, reflecting the large

Regional Population Data

	Population (thousands) 1988	Percentage change 1981-88	Density: persons per sq km 1988
North	3,071	−1·5	199·4
Yorkshire and Humberside	4,913	−0·1	318·6
East Midlands	3,970	3·1	254·0
East Anglia	2,034	7·4	161·8
South East	17,344	2·0	637·1
South West	4,634	5·8	194·3
West Midlands	5,207	0·4	400·1
North West	6,364	−1·5	868·0
England	47,536	1·5	364·4
Wales	2,857	1·5	137·6
Scotland	5,094	−1·7	66·1
Northern Ireland	1,578	2·6	111·6

influx of population there. In that region, 5·8 dwellings were completed in 1988 for every 1,000 inhabitants; by contrast, in Greater London only 1·5 homes were completed per 1,000 inhabitants.

Transport

Car ownership is highest in the West Midlands, where in 1987 there were 384 cars for every 1,000 people. It was lowest in the North, where the corresponding figure was only 254 cars. The fastest increase in the number of cars between 1981 and 1987 took place in the West Midlands. Of the 2 million driving tests in Great Britain, just over half were sat by women. However, while 58 per cent of men passed, only 47 per cent of women did. The lowest pass rate for both sexes was in the West Midlands and the highest rates were in Scotland and the North. Fatal or serious road accidents were lowest in the North West, with 72 per 100,000 people, compared with a corresponding figure of 148 in East Anglia.

Health

The rates of still births and perinatal mortality (deaths of children under one week old) more than halved in all areas of Britain between 1971 and 1988. Perinatal mortality is highest in the West Midlands, at 10·3 per 1,000 live births in 1988. It is lowest in the South West, at 8·2. The age-adjusted death rate in 1988 was highest in Scotland, at 1,317 per 100,000 people for males, and lowest in East Anglia, at 1,024. Smoking is most prevalent in Scotland, with 37 per cent of adults (those 16 and over) in 1988 smoking cigarettes. The South West had the lowest proportion (28 per cent).

Law Enforcement

It is difficult to make comparisons between England and Wales on the one hand and Scotland and Northern Ireland on the other, because of the different legal systems.[1] Within England and Wales, in 1988 the police recorded the highest rate of crime in the North (9,454 offences per 100,000 people) and the lowest in East Anglia (5,264 offences per 100,000 people). The overall number of offences recorded in England went up by 23 per cent between 1981 and 1988; the highest increase was in the North (39 per cent) and the lowest in the East Midlands (14 per cent). Average fines varied in 1988 between £201 in the South East and £137 in the North. In 1988 Northern Ireland had one police officer for every 192 inhabitants; elsewhere, by contrast, East Anglia had one police officer for every 540 inhabitants. Northern Ireland had the highest clear-up rate for recorded crime (45 per cent), while the South East had the lowest (25 per cent).

[1] For international comparisons on crime see p 156.

Education

Pupil-teacher ratios in secondary schools varied in 1989 between 12·7 in Scotland and 16·1 in the South West; these same two regions also had the lowest and highest pupil-teacher ratios respectively in primary schools. Class sizes, however, did not vary much from region to region.

The proportion of 16-year-olds participating in education in 1989-90 varied from 60 per cent in the South East, East Anglia and the South West to 77 per cent in Scotland. In England as a whole, it was 64 per cent, up from 57 per cent in 1981-82. In 1987-88 school-leavers from the South West were the most likely to have a qualification, while those from Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales were the least likely.

Employment

In 1989 the average rate of unemployment in Britain was 6·3 per cent, almost five percentage points below its 1986 peak. However, unemployment varied across the regions, between 3·9 per cent in the South East and 15·1 per cent in Northern Ireland. Self-employment in 1989 was 256,000 higher than in 1988, at 3·2 million, reaching 11·5 per cent as a proportion of the civilian workforce in employment. It varied from 15·4 per cent in East Anglia to 7·9 per cent in the North.

Income and Expenditure

Average weekly household income in 1987 and 1988 varied from around £220 in the North to £338 in the South East. Average gross weekly earnings for full-time male workers were £270 in Great Britain,

ranging from £349 in Greater London to £225 in Yorkshire and Humberside.

Households in Northern Ireland spent a higher proportion of their incomes on fuel, light and power than did those in other regions but a lower proportion on housing. The highest proportions of spending on alcohol and tobacco were in Scotland, the North and the North West; the lowest was in East Anglia. Between 1981 and 1988 consumption of meat and meat products fell in almost all regions. The largest falls were in East Anglia and the South East. Over the same period, consumption of fruit rose in all regions.

Industry

The North West, the East Midlands and the West Midlands were the regions most reliant on manufacturing in 1988, all deriving over 30 per cent of gross domestic product from this. By contrast, the South East derived only 18 per cent, and Northern Ireland only 19 per cent. Gross value-added per employee in manufacturing in 1987 ranged from £21,235 in Wales to £14,287 in Northern Ireland.

Local Authority Data

The 1990 edition of *Regional Trends* is the first to give data tabulations for all the local authority districts in Britain. Sub-regional information in previous years was given only at a county level; the present report therefore makes a significant improvement in coverage. Data given at the district level include population, households, housing stock, local authority housing, employment by broad categories, and unemployment.

European Regional Data

The report also includes some comparative data on the various regions of the member states of the European Community. Series include population, birth and death rates, employment by broad sectors, unemployment, and regional gross domestic products indexed to the European average. Great contrasts exist between some regions of Europe. For example, in 1987 the highest birth rate (17·7 per 1,000 people) was in Northern Ireland, which had nearly three times the rate of the Emilia-Romagna region of Italy (6·4 births per 1,000 people).

School-Industry Links

A government survey published in August 1990 demonstrates the effectiveness of measures being taken to promote stronger ties between schools and industry. Close co-operation between the two is seen as essential in encouraging young people to work in industry, bringing greater relevance to their education and preparing them for adult and working life.

The survey[1] sought to determine the extent and nature of schools' links with local industry (any organisation providing goods or services) during 1988-89. It was concerned with both pupil and teacher involvement in link activities as well as local industry support for schools.[2] A representative sample of 484 state-supported primary and 435 secondary schools in England replied to the survey, which was undertaken in June 1989. A similar survey was carried out in 1987 covering links in 1986 (see p 387, 1987).

Comparisons with the 1987 Survey

The proportion of primary schools having had links with industry increased from 49 per cent in 1986 to 54 per cent in 1988-89; visits to industry rose from 33 to 38 per cent. Some 89 per cent of primary schools reported that in 1988-89 they had had teaching staff who had previously worked in industry, compared with 47 per cent in 1986. The percentage of primary schools with business representatives on their governing body rose from 13 to 76 per cent between 1986 and 1988-89.

The proportion of secondary schools reporting that they had had teaching staff with previous industrial experience grew from 88 per cent in 1986 to 98 per cent in 1988-89. Over nine-tenths of secondary schools said that they had had representatives from the business community on their governing body in 1988-89, compared with under a third in 1986.

1990 Survey

Nearly a third of primary schools had established links with service industries and a quarter said that they had made contacts with manufacturing firms. Almost 90 per cent of secondary schools had had links or contacts with local industry, around three-quarters reporting links with both manufacturing and service industry companies and just over half declaring ties with public sector industries. The breadth of secondary schools' links with local industry had been much greater than that for primary schools: 32 per cent of secondary schools had had links with all types of industry – manufacturing, service, public sector and other companies – compared with 3 per cent of primary schools. Also, secondary schools had taken part in more link activities than primary schools.

Work Experience

Two government initiatives require pupils to undergo work experience: the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI – see p 123) and the Lower Attaining Pupils Programme. At the time of the survey 34 per cent of all secondary schools were participating in the TVEI scheme. Of secondary schools with pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling, 91 per cent reported that they had arranged work experience placements for pupils in industry (see pp 351-2, 1988). Over 70 per cent of the total number of pupils in their last year of compulsory education had had placements; 25 per cent

[1]The results are summarised in Department of Education and Science Statistical Bulletin, *Survey of School/Industry Links*, No 10/90, August 1990. Available free from DES Statistics Branch, Elizabeth House, York Road, London SE1 7PH.

[2]For further information see COI reference paper *Education-Business Links in Britain*, No 318/89.

had been involved as part of a central government initiative, with the average length of placement being ten days.

In 29 per cent of secondary schools pupils had taken part in work-based projects, such as coursework assignments, on employers' premises. The proportion of secondary schools where pupils had engaged in work shadowing (observing a particular job) had been 19 per cent, while 13 per cent had had pupils carrying out work observation (observing a range of employee activities or work processes); on average the number of pupils involved per school had been 20 and 28 per cent respectively. More than two-fifths of secondary schools said that work experience had contributed to assessed course work for the General Certificate of Secondary Education. Around three-fifths of these schools reported that work experience had been a part of course work in English, and over two-fifths said that it had made some contribution to business studies.

Other Link Activities

The most frequent school-industry link, other than work experience, for both primary and secondary schools had been visits to industry; 38 per cent of primary and 72 per cent of secondary schools had made visits to at least one type of industry. Almost a quarter of primary and over a half of secondary schools had undertaken curriculum development activities in partnership with a local firm. Two-fifths of secondary schools had engaged in mini enterprise activities (setting up and running models of real small firms) as part of the curriculum.

Provision of Services to and from Industry

Some 27 per cent of secondary schools had provided at least one type of service to industry: 12 per cent had carried out design work and 6 per cent translation or market survey work. Nearly one-half of secondary schools had been given technical advice by local industry, and more than two-fifths had received specialist equipment; two-fifths had had practical help from industry in developing the curriculum.

School Governing Bodies

Representatives from business had been seconded to the governing bodies of 76 per cent of primary schools; 29 per cent had had three or more business representatives. More than nine-tenths of secondary schools had had businesspeople on their governing body, with three-fifths having had three or more.

Teachers' Links with Industry

Around 1 per cent of primary schools reported that they had seconded full-time teachers to industry in 1988-89, in almost all cases to manufacturing companies. In secondary schools, staff had been seconded to all types of industry; nearly a quarter of schools had arranged secondments with manufacturing firms.

Almost nine-tenths of primary schools and virtually all secondary schools said that they had employed staff who had had a job in industry before taking up teaching.

Business Representation and Specialist Advice

Only a small percentage of primary schools had had business representatives serving as teachers or advisors in their school during 1988-89, while 13 per cent of secondary schools had had advisors from industry for mathematics/physics or craft, design and technology. Over four-fifths of secondary schools said that a careers teacher had been appointed to support their school; the member of staff responsible for careers education had spent an average of 16 hours a week on careers activities. Nearly one-fifth of secondary schools had engaged in activities sponsored by the Government's Enterprise and Education Initiative, and more than half had been visited by a local education authority school/industry liaison officer. Over two-fifths of secondary schools had used the services of two school-industry link organisations – the Banking Information Service and the Careers Research and Advisory Centre.

Shorter Note

WELSH ENVIRONMENT

The Secretary of State for Wales, Mr David Hunt, has announced a £14·4 million environmental improvement programme for Wales. The package, announced on 2 August, will fund more than 300 separate projects to improve Welsh towns, villages and landscapes. Schemes range from the refurbishment of run-down urban centres to the creation of country parks. Also included are projects to conserve historic sites, build footpaths and improve routes into key areas of Wales.

The programme involves a partnership between the Welsh Development Agency (WDA) and local authorities in Wales. Half the cost will be met by WDA grant, and the remainder by county, borough and district councils. It will last for four years and is the most wide-ranging programme of environmental improvements yet drawn up by the WDA. It complements the £25 million a year programme to deal with industrial dereliction led by the WDA's Land Reclamation Department.

Mr Hunt said that he was particularly pleased to see that a significant proportion of the schemes were directed towards improvements in residential and urban areas. These would help to make Wales an attractive location in which to invest and would secure a better quality of life, work and leisure for the people of Wales.

Source: Welsh Office news release, 2.8.90.

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Progress in the Next Steps Initiative. Eighth Report of the House of Commons Treasury and Civil Service Committee, Session 1989-90. HMSO, £14·35. ISBN 0 10 248190 3.

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United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1990 Edition (see p 314). Central Statistical Office. HMSO, £10·95. ISBN 0 11 620443 5.

The Standard Community Charge and Other Matters: A Consultation Paper. Seeks views on a number of changes that the Government has in mind to make in England following its review of the new system of local government finance (see pp 285-6). Available free from the Department of the Environment, Room N6/16, 2 Marsham Street, London SW1P 3EB.

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Energy Efficiency in Domestic Electrical Appliances. Energy Efficiency series No 13. A report by the March Consulting Group on behalf of the Energy Technology Support Unit for the Energy Efficiency Office. The report says that domestic electrical appliances (excluding heating) account for about 21 per cent of Britain's electricity consumption. According to the report, over 40 per cent of this figure could be saved if consumers bought the most efficient products already on the market, and over 60 per cent by the development of advanced products. HMSO, £24. ISBN 0 11 413424 3.

Scottish Power: Report and Accounts 1989-90. Available free from Scottish Power, Cathcart House, Spean Street, Glasgow G44 4BE.

British Waterways Report and Accounts 1989-90. Available from British Waterways Board, Greycaine Road, Watford WD2 4JR. £6. ISBN 0 903218 54 2.

Heavy Goods Vehicles in Great Britain 1989. Department of Transport. HMSO, £7·50. ISBN 0 11 550978 X.

Seaborne Trade Statistics of the United Kingdom 1989. Department of Transport. HMSO, £16·75. ISBN 0 11 550980 1.

Environmental, Social and Cultural Affairs

Homelessness. A report from the National Audit Office examining the effectiveness of measures taken to deal with homelessness in England. The report finds that there are significant numbers of empty government residential properties, and that departments appear to be improving their management arrangements. It also finds that better management of local authority housing stock could reduce the use of temporary accommodation in some areas. HMSO, £6·10. ISBN 0 10 262290 6.

Private Renting in 1988. A report on a survey carried out by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys on behalf of the Department of the Environment. It finds that private renting declined from 14 per cent of households in 1978 to 9 per cent in 1988. Most property was let by private individuals rather than by property companies or the tenant's employers. People aged 60 and over living alone form an increasing proportion of private renters. HMSO, £12·40. ISBN 0 11 691310 X.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Pollution Report 1988-89. Second annual report. It notes the preparations made during the year for the proposed introduction of integrated pollution control (see pp 81-4). In preparation for this, the Inspectorate was reorganised into three regional divisions, between them covering all of England and Wales. Each division has an integrated team capable of dealing with all aspects of pollution control. HMSO, £9·50. ISBN 0 11 752323 2.

Her Majesty's Industrial Pollution Inspectorate Annual Report. Covers the period January 1987 to March 1988, and is the first report following the transfer of responsibility for the Inspectorate's work to the Secretary of State for Scotland. Previous reports in the series dealt primarily with air pollution control work, but this edition has been expanded to cover other aspects of its work. HMSO, £4·65. ISBN 0 11 494126 2.

Three, Four and More: A Study of Triplet and Higher Order Births. Edited by Beverley J. Botting, Alison J. Macfarlane and Frances V. Price. Research funded by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, the Department of Health and others. HMSO, £12·95. ISBN 0 11 691270 7.

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